

Neural functions of long noncoding RNAs in Drosophila

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Received: 11 August 2013 / Accepted: 22 August 2014 / Published online: 16 September 2014 © Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2014

Abstract Long noncoding RNA (lncRNA) is an emerging category of transcript, and comprises the majority of the transcriptome of various complex organisms. The biological functions of only a handful of lncRNAs have been investigated in detail, showing involvement in a wide range of biological processes through different functional paradigms. However, most lncRNAs remain to be identified. Many lncRNAs are predicted to function, often preferentially, in the nervous system, potentially playing roles in mediating neural functions such as development, behavior, and cognition. To examine the biological significance and potential mechanisms of the remaining unknown neural lncRNAs, certain tractable model organisms, such as *Dros*ophila, can provide advantages including the use of numerous genetic tools. Herein, we summarize recent progress on the in vivo or potential functions of *Drosophila* lncRNAs, in particular, behavior and development-related lncRNAs.

Keywords Behavior \cdot Development \cdot Long noncoding RNA \cdot *Drosophila*

Introduction

Long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) are RNA transcripts with no protein-coding capacity, which are longer than 200 nucleotides and lack appreciable opening reading frames (Ng et al. 2013). Similar to mRNA, some lncRNAs are transcribed by RNA polymerase II and processed via 5'

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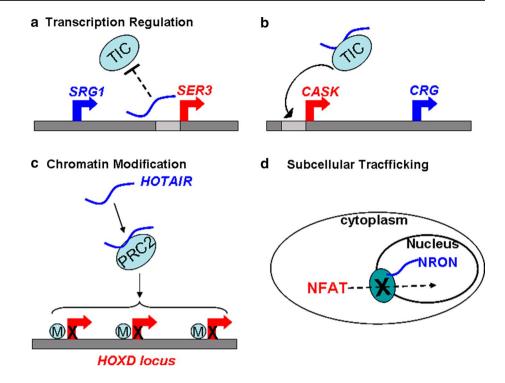
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end-capping, 3' end-polyadenylation, and alternative splicing (Kapranov et al. 2007; Qureshi et al. 2010). lncRNAs can be classified according to their genomic organization. Sense or anti-sense lncRNAs share overlapping regions with adjacent protein-coding genes on the same or opposite strand, respectively (Martens et al. 2004; Feng et al. 2006). Bidirectional lncRNAs originates their expression and the neighboring coding transcript on the opposite strand in close genomic vicinity (Faedo et al. 2004), while intronic lncRNAs derive from introns of splicing coding transcripts (Heo and Sung 2011) and intergenic lncRNAs are located within the genomic interval between two coding genes (Collier et al. 2012). As for functional paradigms, lncRNAs can regulate gene expression at the level of transcription, for example the yeast lncRNA, SRG1, disrupts the expression of the downstream SER3 gene (Martens et al. 2004) (Fig. 1a), and CRG, a Drosophila lncRNA, positively regulates the expression of upstream CASK by recruiting the transcription initiation complex to the CASK gene promoter (Li et al. 2012) (Fig. 1b). lncRNAs can also induce chromatin modifications (e.g., Hox antisense intergenic RNA (HOTAIR) transcribed from the HoxC locus, recruits the Polycomb chromatin remodeling complex (PRC2), resulting in histone methylation and gene silencing in the distal HoxD locus) (Rinn et al. 2007) (Fig. 1c), and alter subcellular trafficking (e.g., NRON regulates the localization of the transcription factor, NFAT, by interacting with nuclear transport proteins) (Willingham et al. 2005) (Fig. 1d).

Similar to vertebrates, the transcriptomes of invertebrates such as *Drosophila*, consist of a large number of lncRNAs (Kapranov et al. 2007; Guttman and Rinn 2012; Rinn and Chang 2012; Young et al. 2012). To date, only a very small portion of known lncRNAs have been thoroughly characterized, but with diverse biological functions shown for those described (Martens et al. 2004; Feng

Fig. 1 Functional paradigms of lncRNAs. a Transcriptional interference. Transcription of upstream SRG1 via the SER3 promoter disturbs SER3 expression. b Promoter enhancement. CRG recruits RNA polymerase II to the CASK promoter. c Epigenetic repression. HOTAIR interacts with PRC2 resulting in histone methylation of the HoxD locus. d Transport of transcription factors. NRON binds to a nuclear transport protein to inhibit nuclear translocation of NFAT. Blue lncRNAs, red protein-coding gene, pale gray promoter elements



et al. 2006; Martianov et al. 2007; Hirota et al. 2008; Zhao et al. 2008). Although currently little is known about the *in vivo* functions of most lncRNAs, tissue-specific expression patterns have been demonstrated, with especially high expression observed in the nervous system of both mammals and fruit flies (Inagaki et al. 2005; Muotri and Gage 2006; Mehler and Mattick 2006, 2007; Mercer et al. 2008; Ponjavic et al. 2009). Neural abundance and specificity of lncRNAs suggests they may have crucial effects on neural development, cognitive activity, and neurodegenerative processes. This review discusses recent findings on the roles of lncRNAs, particularly in mediating behavior or development, using *Drosophila* as a genetic model to gain insight into the pathogenesis of neurological diseases with movement or cognitive dysfunction.

Bioinformatic and expression analyses indicate abundant neural-related lncRNAs in *Drosophila*

Recently, a set of 1,119 putative, long intergenic noncoding RNAs (lincRNAs) were identified using modENCODE whole transcriptome (RNA-seq) data from *D. melanogaster* (Young et al. 2012). All the identified lincRNAs exhibit dynamic expression profiles throughout the flies' lifecycle. To determine potential biological functions, genomic loci were examined and found to be significantly enriched in the proximity of development-related protein-coding genes mediating nervous system development, imaginal disc-derived wing morphogenesis, and sensory organ or ventral

cord development. Moreover, high correlation of expression levels between lincRNAs and adjacent development-involved protein-coding genes suggests the lincRNAs likely play roles in regulating developmental processes, particularly those of the nervous system (Young et al. 2012). To date, this study provides the best lincRNA candidates for further experimental investigation on contributions to neural developmental processes.

Another *in silico* screening study identified 136 unannotated mRNA-like noncoding RNAs (ncRNAs) in *Drosophila*, and used *in situ* hybridization to determine expression at the embryonic stage. One quarter of the transcripts were detected during embryogenesis, and most exhibited tissue-specific expression patterns, particularly high in the central and peripheral nervous systems (Inagaki et al. 2005). This suggests that mRNA-like ncRNAs play important roles in organogenesis and cell differentiation during *Drosophila* development.

Overall, these studies predict that vertebrate and invertebrate genomes hold large numbers of lncRNA loci with strong neural correlations. Thus, *Drosophila* genetics will allow investigation of lncRNA neural functions *in vivo*, and in particular, effects on cognition or behavior and potential molecular mechanisms.

The lncRNA yar affects Drosophila sleep behavior

Drosophila yellow-achaete intergenic RNA (yar) is an intergenic lncRNA. Upstream of yar is the yellow gene



(y), encoding a secreted protein required for cuticle coloration and male sexual behavior (Nash and Yarkin 1974; Biessmann 1985; Chia et al. 1986; Geyer et al. 1986; Geyer and Corces 1987; Drapeau et al. 2003), while downstream is the achaete gene (ac), which encodes one of the four related basic HLH transcription factors of the achaete-scute complex (AS-C), responsible for proper development of the central and peripheral nervous systems (Modolell and Campuzano 1998; Gibert and Simpson 2003; Negre and Simpson 2009). Because gene order in eukaryotic chromosomes is nonrandom and yar is located in a neural gene cluster, by inference from neighboring gene functions, it suggests that yar may have a neural function (Soshnev et al. 2008). In addition, open reading frame (ORF) analysis demonstrated that yar is an lncRNA gene. Thereafter, two general fly behaviors (geotactic ability and sleep) were investigated in adult flies, showing that yar null mutants exhibit normal locomotor behavior, but have shortened night-time sleep bouts within a normal circadian sleep-wake cycle and diminished levels of sleep rebound following deprivation. The two defective night-time sleep and sleep rebound phenotypes can be rescued by a yar transgene, demonstrating that yar is required for sleep regulation (Soshnev et al. 2011). During mid-embryogenesis, an ubiquitous var RNA expression pattern was also shown. Complementary and supporting evidence for behavioral regulation by yar will benefit from future expression analysis on yar RNA at the adult stage. As for the potential molecular mechanism of yar involvement in sleep regulation, first, loss of yar does not affect transcription of the two adjacent genes, y, and ac, therefore excludes these genes as yar candidate target genes. Second, as yar is a cytoplasmic RNA, it suggests that the regulatory effects of yar likely depend upon stabilization or translational regulation of target RNAs. This study provides an example of an lncRNA mediating Drosophila sleep behavior, which will aid investigation of vertebrate lncRNAs with similar functions and potentially identify the molecular basis of sleep regulation.

The lncRNA CRG regulates Drosophila locomotor behavior

Many lncRNAs show spatial- and temporal-specific expression patterns within the central nervous system, suggesting they play important roles in cellular processes, neural development, and cognitive and behavioral processes. In previous studies, we identified lncRNAs using bioinformatic and in vitro translation assays (Li et al. 2012, 2014), and detected *CASK* regulatory gene (*CRG*), a novel behavior-related lncRNA (Li et al. 2012). *CRG* has a restricted expression pattern within the central nervous system at the embryonic, third instar larval, and adult stages. In

the Drosophila genome, CRG is located downstream of a behavior-related coding gene, CASK (Martin and Ollo 1996; Slawson et al. 2011), with an overlapping region between the CRG 5' end and CASK 3' UTR region. Because of this neural-specific expression pattern and location adjacent to a behavior-related coding gene, we investigated fly behavior in CRG null mutants and found they have defective locomotor behavior, exhibited as a shorter tracing length and lower climbing index using Buridan's paradigm and climbing assay, respectively. The two locomotor defects were restored by CRG overexpression, confirming CRG involvement in locomotor behavioral regulation. As for the CRG target gene responsible for behavioral regulation, CASK RNA and protein levels were down-regulated in CRG null mutants and reversed by CRG restoration. In addition, the two defective behaviors were also rescued by CASK overexpression in a CRG null mutant background, suggesting that CRG-CASK signaling mediates both locomotor behaviors. At the molecular level, CRG was shown to recruit RNA polymerase II to the CASK promoter and enhance CASK expression. Furthermore, CRG interactions between both RNA polymerase II and CRG functional domains were identified. Our study described CRG, a novel neural-specific lncRNA, involved in *Drosophila* locomotor behavior via transcriptional regulation of adjacent proteincoding genes, and demonstrated another lncRNA functional mode, thereby further enriching their biological significance. We used the fruit fly, a genetic model organism, to identify a novel behavior-related lncRNA and clarify underlying molecular mechanisms. Our approach may provide insight into the pathogenesis of neurological diseases associated with movement disorders.

The lncRNA *iab-8* affects mating behavior in *Drosophila*

The Drosophila bithorax complex determines the posterior thorax and each abdominal segment of the fly, by regulating expression of three homeotic genes: Ultrabithorax (Ubx), abdominal A (abd-A), and Abdominal B (Abd-B) (Lewis 1978). Drosophila homeotic gene clusters contain many lncRNAs, and including iab-8 (Lipshitz et al. 1987; Cumberledge et al. 1990; Bae et al. 2002; Stark et al. 2008; Tyler et al. 2008). The 92-kb-long iab-8 transcript is encoded in the intergenic region between the homeotic abd-A and Abd-B genes. lncRNA iab-8 is expressed in neural cells of the eighth abdominal segment from embryonic stage 14, and represses abd-A. Abd-A repression by iab-8 involves two mechanisms, one uses a microRNA (miR-iab-8) imbedded within an intron of the iab-8 ncRNA, while the other is mediated by transcriptional interference when RNA polymerase reaches the 3' end of the iab-8 ncRNA overlapping



with the *abd-A* promoter (Gummalla et al. 2012). Knocking down *iab-8* expression induces male and female sterility. This sterility does not derive from a problem with gametogenesis, gonads, or the external genitalia, but originates from a behavioral phenotype, and specifically, the male abdomen fails to bend and thereby prevents copulation with female flies. In female flies, eggs cannot pass through the oviduct, possibly because of a peristaltic wave disorder (Gummalla et al. 2012).

The lncRNA bft contributes to bristle morphogenesis

Sensory organ formation is regulated by both lineage and selector genes. Lineage genes such as tramtrack (ttk), are expressed in external sensory and internal chordotonal organs, and direct asymmetric division of sensory organ precursors (Uemura et al. 1989; Rhyu et al. 1994; Guo et al. 1995). Selector genes such as *cut*, are expressed in external sensory organ precursors and their progeny, and specify organ identity (Bodmer et al. 1987; Blochlinger et al. 1988, 1990, 1991). For appropriate organogenesis of the sensillum structures, organ identity and lineage information must be integrated within individual cells of a sensory organ. The Drosophila peripheral nervous system lncRNA bereft (bft), which is expressed in external sensory organ support cells, participates in this integration. Bft acts downstream of cut and ttk to implement correct morphogenesis of cuticular structure forming support cells, and in particular those of the interommatidial bristles of the eye (Hardiman et al. 2002).

$Hsr\omega$ is a stress-responsive *Drosophila* IncRNA

In D. melanogaster, the heat shock RNA omega (hsr ω) lncRNA is one of the most active genes after heat exposure (Lakhotia 2003). $Hsr\omega$ loci in different Drosophila species share a common organization with two exons, one intron, and a long stretch of tandem repeats at the 3' end of the gene. The $hsr\omega$ gene produces three splicing transcripts (hsrω-pre-c, hsrω-c, and hsrω-n), with hsrω-c located in the cytoplasm and the other two restricted to the nucleus (Garbe et al. 1986). Multiple $hsr\omega$ transcripts are expressed in nearly all cells from the embryonic to adult stages, in a developmentally regulated pattern essential for normal development and stressful conditions, such as heat shock (Bendena et al. 1991; Mutsuddi and Lakhotia 1995; Lakhotia et al. 2001). Of the $hsr\omega$ transcripts, the large (>10 kb) nuclear-restricted hsrω-n transcript is responsible for spatial restoration of key regulatory factors (e.g., hnRNPs, HP1, and RNA polymerase II) to their pre-stress nuclear targets in cells recovering from thermal stress. Failure of correct relocation to pre-stress chromosome sites induces restoration failure for normal developmental gene activity and finally delayed organismal death (Lakhotia et al. 2012). Thus, this study provides insight into regulation of cellular reprogramming events at the beginning of stress recovery and highlights the importance of the hsr ω -n transcript for organismal survival.

The *Drosophila* lncRNA *bxd* regulates *Ubx* transcription

Drosophila Hox genes regulate anterior-posterior patterning, and misexpression can cause homeotic transformations (Lewis 1978). In D. melanogaster, Hox gene intergenic regions produce many long ncRNAs that may regulate Hox gene transcription, e.g., bithoraxoid (bxd). There are several studies concerning different regulatory modes of bxd on Ubx transcription. An embryonic study found a nonoverlapping pattern for anterior bxd and posterior Ubx, with bxd repressing Ubx expression in cis through a transcription-dependent mechanism. Further, alternative association of trithorax acetylation complex (TAC1) with either bxd or Ubx induces transcription and repression of the associated and non-associated one, respectively. Thus, the mosaic pattern of Ubx expression induced by TAC1 promotes elongation of bxd RNA and inhibits Ubx expression (Petruk et al. 2006). Ubx RNA de-repression was also shown by deleting the bxd ncRNA promoter (Sipos et al. 2007). In another embryonic study, an inverted bxd ncRNA promoter within the bithorax complex, produced nonsense bxd RNA and induced three additional stripes of Ubx RNA expression in blastoderm embryos. Therefore, bxd RNA delays the appearance of the posterior three stripes of Ubx RNA, but does not affect fly development (Pease et al. 2013). In summary, Ubx transcription is regulated by bxd RNA in specific locations and developmental stages.

Conclusions

LncRNA transcription is widespread, not only in the mammalian genome but also in invertebrates, such as *Drosophila*. However, there is weak conservation between lncRNA sequences of different species, suggesting they are frequently acted upon by positive selection (Hyashizaki 2004; Pang et al. 2006; Ponjavic et al. 2007). Many lncRNAs have been predicted or demonstrated experimentally to have regulatory effects on neural functions, which is of importance, as dysfunction of this regulatory network may induce neurological disorders. Thus, using powerful genetic tools in *Drosophila* may provide valuable insight into in vivo lncRNA regulatory effects on development,



behavior, and cognition. This enables the molecular basis or neural region underlying phenotypic alterations elicited by novel lncRNAs to be determined, thereby further enriching their biological significance, particularly in terms of neural function.

Acknowledgments This work was supported by the National Natural Sciences Foundation of China (No. 31300889) and the Chinese Academy of Sciences (No. GJHZ201302).

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